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## **Standardized laboratory tests with 21 species of temperate and tropical sepsid flies confirm their suitability as bioassays of pharmaceutical residues (ivermectin) in cattle dung**

Blanckenhorn, Wolf U ; Puniamoorthy, Nalini ; Schäfer, Martin A ; Scheffczyk, Adam ; Römbke, Jörg

**Abstract:** Veterinary pharmaceuticals excreted in the dung of treated livestock can have strong non-target effects on the dung organism community. We report results of ecotoxicological tests with ivermectin for 21 species of temperate (Europe, North America) and tropical (Asia, Central America) black scavenger flies (Diptera: Sepsidae), using standardized methods developed previously for the yellow dung fly and the face fly. Our study documents great variation in ivermectin sensitivity of more than two orders of magnitude among species and even populations within species: estimated lethal effect concentrations LC<sub>50</sub> (at which 50% of the flies died) ranged from 0.05 to 18.55 mg/kg dung fresh weight (equivalent to 0.33–132.22 mg/kg dung dry weight). We also show that controlled laboratory tests can—within reasonable limits—be extended to the field or to laboratory settings without climate control, as obtained LC<sub>50</sub> were roughly similar. In addition to lethal effects, our study revealed relevant sub-lethal effects at lower ivermectin concentrations in terms of prolonged development, smaller body size and reduced juvenile growth rate. Finally, oviposition choice experiments showed that females generally do not discriminate against dung containing ivermectin residues. We conclude that sepsid flies are well suited test organisms for pharmaceutical residues in the dung of livestock due to their ease and speed of rearing and handling, particularly in the tropics, where high-tech laboratory equipment is often not available.

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Standardized Laboratory tests of the livestock parasiticides ivermectin using various  
temperate and tropical sepsid dung fly species

Wolf U. Blanckenhorn<sup>a\*</sup>, Nalini Puniamoorthy<sup>a</sup>, Martin A. Schäfer<sup>a</sup>, Adam  
Scheffczyk<sup>b</sup>, Jörg Römbke<sup>b</sup>

a) Institut für Evolutionsbiologie & Umweltwissenschaften, Universität Zürich-  
Irchel, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zürich, Switzerland

b) ECT Oekotoxikologie GmbH, Böttgerstr. 2-14, D-65439 Flörsheim, Germany

\*Author for correspondence

Dr. Wolf Blanckenhorn

Zoological Museum

Evolutionary Biology & Environmental Studies

University of Zurich-Irchel

34 (building)-J (floor) -98 (office)

Winterthurerstrasse 190

CH-8057 Zurich

Phone: +41 44 635.47.55

E-mail: wolf.blanckenhorn@ieu.uzh.ch

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Abstract — Veterinary pharmaceuticals excreted in the dung of treated livestock can have strong non-target effects on the dung organism community. We report results of ecotoxicological tests with ivermectin for 21 species of temperate (Europe, North America) and tropical (Asia, Central America) black scavenger flies (Diptera: Sepsidae), using standardized methods developed previously for the yellow dung fly and the face fly. Our study documents large variation in ivermectin sensitivity of more than two orders of magnitude among species and even populations within species: estimated lethal effect concentrations LC<sub>50</sub> (at which 50% of the flies died) ranged from 0.05 – 18.55 µg / kg dung fresh weight (equivalent to 0.33 – 132.22 µg / kg dung dry weight). We also show that controlled laboratory tests can – within reasonable limits – be extended to the field or to laboratory settings without climate control, as obtained LC<sub>50</sub> were roughly similar. In addition to lethal effects, our study revealed relevant sub-lethal effects at lower ivermectin concentrations in terms of prolonged development, smaller body size and reduced juvenile growth rate. Finally, oviposition choice experiments showed that females generally do not discriminate against dung containing ivermectin residues. We conclude that sepsid flies are well suited test organisms for pharmaceutical residues in the dung of livestock due to their ease and speed of rearing and handling, particularly in the tropics, where high-tech laboratory equipment is often not available.

Keywords—Dung community, Insect, Ecotoxicological test, Oviposition choice

## INTRODUCTION

Veterinary pharmaceuticals excreted in the dung of treated livestock can have strong non-target effects on the dung community (e.g. Lumaret et al., 2012; Wall and Strong, 1987), and consequently on the environment in general. Typically some proportion of dung dwellers, primarily beetles and flies, are negatively affected, ultimately impeding the important ecosystem function of breaking down the dung (Floate et al., 2005; Jochmann et al., 2011). Systematic disturbance of the dung community by anthropogenic substances thus raises concerns, to the extent that in the USA, the EU and Japan regulators mandate environmental risk assessments (ERA) for residues of potentially toxic substances excreted in livestock dung (EC, 2009; VICH, 2004; VICH, 2000). This concern is especially true for specific parasiticides such as avermectins (Liebig et al., 2010; Lumaret et al., 2012). As part of such an ERA, standardized tests with non-target organisms have to be performed, usually according to OECD guidelines.

For dung dwellers, single species ecotoxicological laboratory tests recently have been developed for two flies, the yellow dung fly *Scathophaga stercoraria* L. (Diptera: Scathophagidae) and the face fly *Musca autumnalis* L. (Diptera: Muscidae) (Römbke et al. 2010a, 2009). Subsequently, these test protocols were transformed into standardized guidelines by the OECD (OECD, 2010; OECD, 2008). The tests revealed not only lethal but also non-lethal effects in terms of reduced growth, body size and retarded development at lower substance concentrations (Römbke et al., 2009), which are also relevant in the natural situation (e.g. Blanckenhorn, 1998). It is generally clear that any single test species cannot capture, and hence typify, the diversity of sensitivities to any particular toxic substance present in natural communities. In fact, typical ecotoxicological test species, such as the yellow dung fly

or the face fly (Römbke et al., 2010a, 2009), are likely to be common, widespread, easy to rear in the laboratory, have a low sensitivity to fluctuations in environmental conditions, and show broad sensitivity towards man-made pollutants in general (otherwise they would have not been selected; Løkke and Van Gestel, 1998; Römbke et al., 2010b). At the moment globally valid OECD standards require the use of the same test species (usually of temperate origin). However, there is some agreement among regulators that in the future regional abiotic (e.g. test conditions such as temperature) and biotic (e.g. species) differences must be taken into account in ERA (e.g. EFSA, 2010; Römbke et al., 2010b). Various test species representing the different biogeographic regions of the world (e.g. tropical vs. temperate) are therefore desirable when assessing the effects of parasiticides on the dung community.

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of a parasiticide on 21 species of temperate (Europe, North America) and tropical (Asia, Central America) sepsid dung or black scavenger flies (Diptera: Sepsidae) in standardized ecotoxicological tests. As a model substance we used the parasiticide ivermectin, and we designed our tests like those for other dung flies (Römbke et al., 2010a, 2009). Ivermectin is commonly applied to a variety of livestock species worldwide to eliminate parasitic nematodes, but also arthropods like ticks and lice (Floate et al., 2005; Liebig et al., 2010). Sepsid flies are distributed worldwide (Blume, 1985; Pont and Meier, 2002). They are small, locally common, and easy to rear in large groups (not unlike *Drosophila*) on cattle dung. In addition, they have short generation times of ca. 2 weeks (e.g. Blanckenhorn et al., 1998). We were especially interested in whether multiple geographic populations differ in their sensitivity, using mortality (LC50) and non-lethal effects on growth, development and body size as assessment

criteria. We further tested whether four of the temperate species differ in sensitivity when being exposed in parallel under controlled laboratory conditions as well as under naturally variable field conditions to determine whether such tests can also function in uncontrolled, natural settings. Finally, results of oviposition choice experiments for a subset of the species were used to investigate whether sepsid females can discriminate dung contaminated with ivermectin.

## **1. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### *2.1 Emergence tests*

We followed the methods and standards specified in Römcke et al. (2010a, 2009) and OECD (2008). Tests of 21 sepsid species were performed over a period of 4 years (2008 – 2011) in temporal blocks. Dung used in all tests was originally collected fresh from cattle in the field that had not been treated with parasiticides for at least three months, and was subsequently frozen at -20 °C for at least 4 weeks before being used. The dung was spiked with ivermectin, using technical ivermectin (CAS-No. 70288-86-7) with a purity of 94% ivermectin B1a and 2.8% ivermectin B1b (Merial, Atlanta, GA, USA). Ivermectin was first dissolved in acetone to obtain the desired concentrations by serial dilution. The acetone/ivermectin solution was then thoroughly mixed into cattle dung and kept overnight at room temperature to allow for evaporation of the solvent. Each test comprised 8 treatments: a blank control, an acetone control, and six ivermectin concentrations ranging from 0.21 to 65.7 µg ivermectin / kg dung fresh weight. As the dry matter content of the dung used was determined as 14.03%, these numbers were equivalent to 1.48 – 468.28 µg ivermectin / kg dung dry weight. In a few cases (especially with insensitive species) an extra high concentration was tested in addition (207 µg ivermectin / kg dung fresh

weight or 1483  $\mu\text{g}$  ivermectin / kg dung dry weight). No analytical verification was performed, but it is known from literature that ivermectin is highly persistent in dung (e.g. Liebig et al., 2010).

All flies used were originally caught wild at the various sites specified in Table 1 and kept for multiple generations in our laboratories in Zürich and/or Singapore (see e.g. Blanckenhorn et al., 1998, for rearing methods). For the tests, multiple dishes (size 22 (width) x 44 (length) x 6 (depth)  $\text{mm}^3$ ) filled with a thin layer of fresh dung were put overnight into several population containers per species so that females could lay eggs into them. Ca. 24 h later larvae hatched and could be collected, using a fine brush, from the surface as the dung layer was slowly drying. The experimental units were the same plastic dishes (22 x 44 x 6  $\text{mm}^3$ ) filled entirely with ca. 6 g (fresh weight) of test dung (5 replicates per treatment). Typically 10 – 15 larvae from several holding containers (i.e. mothers) were counted into each experimental dish. Each dish was then transferred into a 50 ml glass tube capped with a paper stopper and incubated in a climate chamber at 21 °C and, additionally for only some populations (see Table 1), at a fully shaded field site outdoors close to the University of Zürich-Irchel.

The number of adult flies (of both sexes) emerging from each dish was recorded to document the lethal effect of ivermectin residues in the dung. Sub-lethal effects were additionally assessed by recording the (larva to adult) development times of all emerging flies (always adding one day for preceding egg development), as well as their head width as a practical surrogate for body size. Males and females typically differ in development time and body size, so data were recorded separately for the sexes. Growth rates could then be calculated simply as head width / development time.

Separately for each population and species (i.e. each test listed in Table 1), ivermectin concentrations causing 50% larva-to-adult mortality (LC50) were estimated using probit analysis of logit-transformed emergence proportions against  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration), as for binary data sigmoid relationships are expected. Analogous sex-specific linear regressions were employed to assess the effect of  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration) on development time, body size and growth rate (untransformed raw values in all cases). The acetone control was set to 0.1 ivermectin equivalents and the blank control to 0.09 for purposes of analysis, because otherwise all concentration values of zero would have been excluded. In the existing OECD guidelines for the larger dung flies *Scathophaga stercoraria* and *Musca autumnalis* validity criteria of 60 – 70% adult emergence are required (OECD 2008). However, due to the lack of experience with sepsid flies, here a test was considered valid if larva-to-adult survival in the combined water and acetone control treatments exceeded 50%, though most species had control mortality rates <30%). In any case, the LC50 values were calculated relative to the control mortality.

## 2.2 Oviposition choice experiments

For the oviposition site choice experiments, a total of 4 – 14 replicate containers of various sepsid populations/species were each offered a plastic dish (22 x 44 x 6 mm<sup>3</sup>) with test dung of each of the above six ivermectin concentrations plus the two blank and acetone controls in a randomized spatial array. Females in each population container were given about 4 h to oviposit, whereupon all eggs laid into each dish were counted. Linear regressions of the square-root-transformed number of eggs laid per dish on  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration) were performed to test whether a given species/population significantly avoided or preferred dung with



ivermectin.

## 2. RESULTS

### 3.1 Emergence tests

Table 1 lists the estimated Lethal effect Concentrations LC50 (at which 50% of the flies died), plus their (asymmetric) 95% confidence intervals (CI), in terms of fresh dung and dry dung matter. Overall LC50 values varied considerably by more than two orders of magnitude (0.05 – 24.58 µg / kg dung fresh weight, and 0.33 – 175.21 µg / kg dung dry weight). Figure 1 shows exemplary data for one species, *Sepsis monostigma*.

A general linear model (GLM) analyzing only those four species that were reared both in the laboratory and the field (*Sepsis cynipsea*, *S. fulgens*, *S. punctum*, *S. thoracica*) showed no differences in LC50 values between the rearing conditions (interaction test reflecting the (sigmoid) slope:  $F_{1,774} = 1.413$ ,  $P = 0.238$ ), demonstrating that, at least for the lethal effect, our ecotoxicological test is robust against abiotic environmental variation (Table 1). Note that at the same time both development time and body size typically varied, sometimes markedly, between the laboratory and the field (Table 2), an unsurprising result given that temperatures differed strongly and insect life history traits are typically very sensitive to such environmental variation (e.g. Blanckenhorn, 1999).

For those seven temperate species for which we tested multiple populations (*Sepsis cynipsea*, *S. fulgens*, *S. neocynipsea*, *S. orthocnemis*, *S. punctum*, *S. thoracica*, *S. violacea*), an analogous GLM revealed that LC50 values differed not only among species (species by ivermectin concentration interaction:  $F_{6,850} = 3.25$ ,  $P = 0.004$ ) but also among populations within species (population by ivermectin

concentration interaction:  $F_{12,850} = 2.40$ ,  $P = 0.005$ ). Variance component analysis revealed approximately as much variance among species as there was among populations within species. Again, this could be expected given that for two species (*S. neocynipsea*, *S. punctum*) North American and European populations were included, which differ strongly genetically and in their life history (including development time and body size: Table 2).

In addition to the above lethal effects, our tests also revealed sub-lethal effects in terms of prolonged development or reduced growth rate and body size (Table 2). Of 41 individual tests, 32 showed a positive linear relationship between development time and  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration) (both sexes combined; two-tailed binomial test:  $P = 0.004$ ); of these 18 were significantly positive (and none significantly negative, while all other relationships have to be considered nil), indicating overall longer development as substance concentration increased (Table 2; e.g. Fig. 1b). Similarly, 33 tests showed a negative linear relationship between body size (head width) and  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration), of which albeit only 9 were significantly negative (and also 2 significantly positive), indicating overall reduced body size with increasing substance concentration (Table 2; e.g. Fig. 1c). When combining both effects in terms of growth rate (= body size / development time), 35 of 41 tests showed a negative relationship, with 16 significantly negative and only 1 significantly positive (Table 2; e.g. Fig. 1d). Thus, in summary, a reduction of juvenile growth by ivermectin was common but not universal among sepsids, only sometimes being effected by developmental delays, and only sometimes resulting in reduced final body size. All interaction tests were highly significant ( $P < 0.001$ ), indicating strong heterogeneity among species and populations in their life history responses to ivermectin.

### 3.2 Oviposition choice experiments

A total of 21 oviposition tests were performed using often multiple populations of 10 temperate sepsid species (Tab. 3; e.g. Fig. 2). In general, sepsid females did not discriminate among oviposition sites (i.e. miniature dung pats) featuring different (sometimes lethal) ivermectin concentrations, thus regularly subjecting their offspring to detrimental substance doses. In most tests there was no relationship between  $\log_{10}$ (ivermectin concentration) and the number of eggs deposited (e.g. Fig. 2). Only 2 tests showed a significantly positive relationship, if anything indicating preference of ivermectin-contaminated dung (Table 3).

## 3. DISCUSSION

Our study demonstrates that standardized laboratory ecotoxicological tests of the sort developed for the yellow dung fly *Scathophaga stercoraria* and the face fly *Musca autumnalis* (OECD, 2008; Römbke et al., 2010a, 2009) also function well with various sepsid species. All relevant criteria for the selection of ecotoxicological test species such as ecological relevance, practicability in breeding and test performance, general intermediate sensitivity, etc. were fulfilled. However, validity criteria and the expected toxicity range of a reference substance (probably ivermectin) have to be fixed, preferably based on the results of multiple laboratory or ring tests. Our results are applicable in general, as we tested tropical as well as temperate species and populations from Europe, Asia, North and Central America. We also show that such tests can – within reasonable limits – be extended to the field or to laboratory settings without climate control, as the lethal effects (LC50) obtained were roughly the same under both conditions. Crucially, our study revealed considerable variation in

ivermectin sensitivity of at least two orders of magnitude among sepsid species and even populations within species. This indicates that any single test species cannot possibly be representative in terms of assessing toxicity of any substance in the dung community (discussed in more detail below). In addition to lethal effects, our study uncovered relevant sub-lethal effects at lower ivermectin concentrations in terms of reduced growth rates (cf. Römbke et al., 2009, but see Römbke et al., 2010a). Finally, as could be expected a priori and from similar experiments with yellow dung flies (Römbke et al., 2009), ovipositing sepsid females generally do not discriminate against dung containing ivermectin residues. We discuss these findings in more detail below.

A striking result of our study is the 500-fold variation in ivermectin sensitivity of closely related sepsid dung flies. The least sensitive species, *Microsepsis* spp., *S. punctum* and *S. monostigma*, have LC50s comparable to those of the common yellow dung fly (Römbke et al., 2009), which was found to be not very sensitive (LC50 around 20 µg / kg fresh dung), while *Musca autumnalis* proved to be more sensitive (LC50 around 5 µg / kg fresh dung: Römbke et al., 2010a), similar to e.g. *S. fulgens* here. Notably, several sepsids proved to be even more sensitive, with LC50s well below 1 µg / kg fresh dung, among them the most common species around cow dung in central Europe, *S. cynipsea*, and the most common species in North America, *S. neocynipsea*, which are closely related sister species. Therefore, common species do not necessarily have low sensitivities to toxic substances. Large variation in sensitivity to parasitocides also makes choice of test species (which is a central part of the ERA process) particularly delicate. In our opinion the only solution to the problem is to allow use of several test species, or even the dung community as a whole (Floate et al., 2005; Jochmann et al., 2011), for ERA of veterinary

pharmaceuticals, by extending and specifying the higher tiers of the registration process already required for these drugs (VICH, 2004). This should also include the issue of regionalization, which is already discussed in the context of pesticide registration (EFSA, 2010). In general, for ease of rearing and handling, we can highly recommend sepsid flies as test species in this context. In fact, given so much variation among species in sensitivity, one may as well use different species for local tests depending on availability. Thus, in the tropics the locally common *S. lateralis*, *S. dissimilis* or *Meroplius fukuhari* could be used, whereas in Europe *S. cynipsea* would be the species of choice. Moreover, as shown here at least regarding the lethal LC50 effects, the test environment is of little concern, allowing tests without expensive climate control or even under field conditions, for example in tropical laboratories.

We emphasize that the concentrations used here are by no means exceptional in the field. Cattle topically treated with ivermectin at the recommended dosage of 500 µg / kg body weight excreted residue concentrations of 205 (3 d post-application) to 30 (12 d post-application) µg / kg fresh weight (Lumaret et al., 2007). When treated with ivermectin injections at the recommended dosage of 200 µg / kg body weight, excreted residues ranged from 200 (3 d post-application) to 10 (28 d post-applications) µg / kg fresh weight (Herd et al., 2006). Similar ranges of ivermectin residues from 1150 (3 d post-application) to 22.8 µg / kg fresh weight (29 d post-application) were found by Suarez et al. (2003).

Fecal residues of veterinary pharmaceuticals can have additional sub-lethal effects on insects breeding in dung, which necessarily influence their performance in the natural habitat (reviewed in Floate et al. (2005) and Jochmann et al. (2011)). For example, smaller flies often have lower reproductive success in the field (e.g. Jann et al., 2000), and longer development times may be detrimental in time-limited

situations when the winter is approaching or when the dung pat is drying or being exhausted (e.g. Blanckenhorn, 1998). It is therefore sensible that the OECD Guideline protocol (2008) recommends measuring developmental time as well as morphological traits such as body size or wing deformations of adult flies (cf. Strong and James (1992), but see Floate and Coghlin (2010)) in addition to mortality effects. Such measurements require little additional effort, yet they can be sensitive indicators for the presence of toxic residues.

As already discussed for the yellow dung fly (Römbke et al., 2009), oviposition choice experiments indicate that most dung breeding sepsids also cannot perceive even high and lethal ivermectin concentrations in dung. From an evolutionary perspective this is perhaps unsurprising given the short time ivermectin is in use (since 1974). Ovipositing females thus are unable to avoid any dung conditions detrimental to their larvae, even though there are reports of some species being particularly attracted to dung containing parasiticide residues (Floate, 2007).

We close by reiterating that sepsid flies are very well suited as test organisms for any toxic residues in the dung of livestock or other large vertebrates, due to their ease and speed of rearing and handling. While the choice of a particular species will be crucial because species vary strongly in sensitivity, use of several local species can offset the arbitrariness of choice to some degree, rendering overall representative results. Sepsids as ecotoxicological test organisms could be particularly useful and economical in the tropics, where high-tech laboratory equipment is often not available.

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## Figure captions

**Figure 1:** Exemplary plots for the sub-tropical Chinese species *Sepsis monostigma* (all  $\pm$  SE): (a) emergence rates for both sexes combined, and sex-specific (males denoted by squares and females by circles) (b) development times, (c) body size (head width), and (d) growth rates as a function of ivermectin concentration plus water & acetone controls. *S. monostigma* was one of the least sensitive species of all, so we had to add an extra high concentration.

**Figure 2:** Square-root-transformed number of eggs laid by populations of Spanish (squares and solid regression line) and Italian (circles and broken line) *Sepsis thoracica* females into dishes containing dung spiked with various ivermectin concentrations, plus water & acetone controls, in laboratory oviposition choice experiments.

## Table captions

**Table 1:** Proportion of flies emerged from the control treatments (water and acetone) for all 47 tests using 21 sepsid species, plus the estimated lethal concentration at which 50% of the flies died (LC50) with their 95% confidence limits in terms of fresh and dry dung (species averages with SD in italics).

**Table 2:** Mean  $\pm$  SE development time and body size for male and female sepsids emerged from the experiment (N = total number of individuals) for all 47 tests using 21 species. The last three columns give the correlation coefficient, for both sexes combined, between the life history trait and log<sub>10</sub>(ivermectin concentration).

Significant correlations are in bold.

442 **Table 3:** Correlation coefficient between the square-root-transformed number of eggs  
443 laid by populations of females into dishes with 6 concentrations of ivermectin plus  
444 two controls and log10 (ivermectin concentration) for each oviposition choice  
445 experiment using a total of 21 populaions of 10 sepsid species (N = number of  
446 population cage replicates). A negative correlation indicates avoidance of higher  
447 ivermectin concentration, a positive correlation preference thereof. Significant  
448 correlations are in bold.

**Table 1:** Proportion of flies emerged from the control treatments (water and acetone) for all 47 tests using 21 sepsid species, plus the estimated lethal concentration at which 50% of the flies died (LC50) with their 95% confidence limits in terms of wet and dry dung (species averages with SD in italics).

Genus	species	population provenance	latitude	longitude	altitude	lab/field	p(emerged)	LC50 (wet)	CI95%l	CI95%h	LC50 (dry)	CI95%l	CI95%h
<i>Archiseptis</i>	<i>armata</i>	Costa Rica: San Jose	9.94	84.05	1208	Lab	0.908	<b>6.201</b>	3.577	12.301	<b>44.198</b>	25.496	87.679
<i>Archiseptis</i>	<i>diversiformis</i>	Costa Rica: San Jose	9.94	84.05	1208	Lab	0.81	<b>1.923</b>	1.102	3.541	<b>13.704</b>	7.856	25.239
<i>Dicranosepsis</i>	<i>emiliae</i>	Vietnam: Tam Dao	21.52	105.55	1000	Lab	0.587	<b>0.241</b>	0.133	0.390	<b>1.720</b>	0.949	2.777
<i>Microsepsis</i>	<i>armillata</i>	Costa Rica: San Jose	9.94	84.05	1208	Lab	0.810	<b>24.582</b>	7.252	209.172	<b>175.209</b>	51.692	1490.890
<i>Microsepsis</i>	<i>mitis</i>	Costa Rica: San Jose	9.94	84.05	1208	Lab	0.811	<b>24.314</b>	9.647	96.884	<b>173.299</b>	68.760	690.546
<i>Meroptus</i>	<i>fukuhari</i>	China: Zhongmu	34.71	113.97	79	Lab	0.557	<b>0.138</b>	0.066	0.237	<b>24.314</b>	9.647	96.884
<i>Saltella</i>	<i>sphondylii</i>	CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Lab	0.635	<b>0.199</b>	0.137	0.274	<b>1.418</b>	0.976	1.953
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>cynipsea</i>	A: Vienna	48.20	16.37	187	Lab	0.690	<b>0.610</b>	0.357	1.020	<b>4.348</b>	2.545	7.270
		CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Field	0.760	<b>0.364</b>	0.266	0.505	<b>2.594</b>	1.896	3.599
			Lab			0.820	<b>0.491</b>	0.338	0.742	<b>3.500</b>	2.409	5.289	
		I: Umbria	43.15	12.10	403	Lab	0.533	<b>0.080</b>	0.037	0.130	<b>0.570</b>	0.264	0.927
		S: Uppsala	59.85	17.63	16	Field	0.650	<b>0.163</b>	0.129	0.203	<b>1.162</b>	0.919	1.447
			Lab			0.659	<b>0.199</b>	0.161	0.246	<b>1.418</b>	1.148	1.753	
		S: Nyköping	58.67	16.94	10	Lab	0.569	<b>0.284</b>	0.175	0.434	<b>2.024</b>	1.247	3.093
						<b>0.313</b>	<b>0.188</b>		<b>2.231</b>	<b>1.343</b>			
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>dissimilis</i>	Brunei	4.94	114.95	1	Lab	0.575	<b>0.107</b>	0.055	0.172	<b>0.763</b>	0.392	1.226
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>duplicata</i>	CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Lab	0.530	<b>0.090</b>	0.052	0.131	<b>0.641</b>	0.371	0.934
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>flavimana</i>	CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Lab	0.580	<b>0.047</b>	0.005	0.138	<b>0.335</b>	0.036	0.984
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>fulgens</i>	A: Vienna	48.20	16.37	187	Lab	0.781	<b>5.684</b>	2.232	23.625	<b>40.513</b>	15.909	168.389
		E: Sierra Nevada	37.20	-3.20	1290	Field	0.663	<b>0.886</b>	0.477	1.610	<b>6.315</b>	3.400	11.475
			Lab			0.581	<b>0.902</b>	0.438	1.763	<b>6.429</b>	3.122	12.566	
		Est: Tartu	58.14	26.91	81	Field	0.748	<b>1.265</b>	0.846	1.913	<b>9.016</b>	6.030	13.635
<i>Sepsis</i>					Lab	0.754	<b>1.209</b>	0.721	2.007	<b>8.617</b>	5.139	14.305	
		I: Calabria	40.13	15.18	5	Lab	0.880	<b>5.567</b>	3.230	11.006	<b>39.679</b>	23.022	78.446
								<b>2.586</b>	<b>2.360</b>		<b>18.428</b>	<b>16.822</b>	
		IND: Sulawesi	1.45	124.84	43	Lab	0.626	<b>0.804</b>	0.202	2.880	<b>5.731</b>	1.440	20.527
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>monostigma</i>	CHN: Zhongmu	34.71	113.97	79	Lab	0.845	<b>11.438</b>	5.166	33.596	<b>81.525</b>	36.821	239.458
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>neocynipsea</i>	CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Lab	0.703	<b>0.232</b>	0.190	0.286	<b>1.654</b>	1.354	2.038
		I: Umbria	43.15	12.10	403	Lab	0.540	<b>0.230</b>	0.144	0.344	<b>1.639</b>	1.026	2.452
		AZ: Tucson	32.22	-110.92	757	Lab	0.724	<b>1.572</b>	0.795	3.512	<b>11.205</b>	5.666	25.032
		IL: Chicago	41.80	-87.65	170	Lab	0.695	<b>0.733</b>	0.322	1.686	<b>5.225</b>	2.295	12.017
						<b>0.692</b>	<b>0.633</b>		<b>4.931</b>	<b>4.510</b>			
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>orthocnemis</i>	A: Vienna	48.20	16.37	187	Lab	0.875	<b>9.888</b>	3.720	51.563	<b>70.478</b>	26.515	367.520
		CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Lab	0.737	<b>1.090</b>	0.694	1.739	<b>7.769</b>	4.947	12.395
							<b>5.489</b>	<b>6.221</b>		<b>39.123</b>	<b>44.342</b>		
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>punctum</i>	CH: Zürich	47.38	8.68	536	Field	0.777	<b>1.659</b>	0.590	5.809	<b>11.825</b>	4.205	41.404
					Lab	0.699	<b>17.423</b>	5.451	132.141	<b>124.184</b>	38.852	941.846	
		D: Berlin	52.52	13.40	41	Field	0.795	<b>1.988</b>	1.189	3.563	<b>14.170</b>	8.475	25.396
			Lab			0.794	<b>1.995</b>	1.216	3.505	<b>14.220</b>	8.667	24.982	
		GA: Athens	33.96	-83.38	228	Lab	0.829	<b>18.550</b>	5.435	190.733	<b>132.217</b>	38.738	1359.465
		NY: New York	40.78	-73.97	47	Lab	0.760	<b>4.244</b>	1.541	16.350	<b>30.249</b>	10.984	116.536
							<b>7.643</b>	<b>8.073</b>		<b>54.477</b>	<b>57.540</b>		
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>secunda</i>	NC: Raleigh	35.77	-78.63	96	Lab	0.710	<b>1.333</b>	0.568	3.598	<b>9.501</b>	4.048	25.645
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>thoracica</i>	A: Vienna	48.20	16.37	187	Lab	0.579	<b>0.641</b>	0.249	1.602	<b>4.569</b>	1.775	11.418
		E: Sierra Nevada	37.20	-3.20	1290	Field	0.580	<b>0.195</b>	0.117	0.296	<b>1.390</b>	0.834	2.110
			Lab			0.535	<b>0.089</b>	0.053	0.129	<b>0.634</b>	0.378	0.919	
		I: Calabria	40.13	15.18	5	Field	0.821	<b>0.351</b>	0.303	0.410	<b>2.502</b>	2.160	2.922
Lab				0.687	<b>0.311</b>	0.241	0.400	<b>2.217</b>	1.718	2.851			
		I: Umbria	43.15	12.10	403	Lab	0.713	<b>0.558</b>	0.393	0.786	<b>3.977</b>	2.801	5.602
							<b>0.358</b>	<b>0.210</b>		<b>2.548</b>	<b>1.499</b>		
<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>violacea</i>	A: Vienna	48.20	16.37	187	Lab	0.550	<b>0.457</b>	0.117	1.149	<b>3.257</b>	0.834	8.190
			58.14	26.91	81	Lab	0.817	<b>1.318</b>	0.435	3.716	<b>9.394</b>	3.100	26.486
							<b>0.888</b>	<b>0.609</b>		<b>6.326</b>	<b>4.339</b>		
<i>Themira</i>	<i>minor</i>	CA: Monterey	36.6	121.89	100	Lab	0.766	<b>1.255</b>	0.707	2.241	<b>8.946</b>	5.042	15.973

**Table 2:** Mean ± SE development time and body size for male and female sepsids emerged from the experiment (N = total number of individuals) for all 47 tests using 21 species. The last three columns give the correlation coefficient, for both sexes combined, between the life history trait and log10(vermectin concentration). Significant correlations are in bold.

Genus	species	population	lab/field	time	Nm	Nf	male development		female development		male head width ± SD	female head width ± SD	development		
							time	± SD	time	± SD			effect	size effect	growth effect
Archiseopsis	armata	Costa Rica: San Jose	Lab	Aug 11	129	136	17.07	± 1.241	17.23 ± 1.153	1.15 ± 0.033	1.25 ± 0.041	0.428	0.117	-0.318	
Archiseopsis	diversiformis	Costa Rica: San Jose	Lab	Aug 11	113	104	20.28	± 0.885	20.02 ± 1.367	1.12 ± 0.02	1.16 ± 0.027	0.358	-0.095	-0.340	
Dicranosepsis	emillae	Vietnam: Tam Dao	Lab	Aug 11	60	74	17.56	± 0.981	17.54 ± 0.775	0.83 ± 0.029	0.90 ± 0.03	0.175	-0.270	-0.286	
Microsepsis	armillata	Costa Rica: San Jose	Lab	Aug 11	146	148	15.34	± 0.786	15.30 ± 1.199	0.81 ± 0.039	0.85 ± 0.04	0.176	-0.502	-0.412	
Microsepsis	mitis	Costa Rica: San Jose	Lab	Aug 11	156	156	14.24	± 0.813	14.03 ± 0.76	0.76 ± 0.034	0.79 ± 0.035	0.065	-0.510	-0.077	
Meroplus	fukuhari	CHN: Zhongmu	Lab	Nov 09	66	62	17.45	± 0.685	17.13 ± 0.689	0.96 ± 0.041	1.00 ± 0.064	0.127	-0.325	-0.419	
Saltella	sphondylii	CH: Zürich	Lab	Oct 09	65	80	20.11	± 0.991	19.67 ± 0.685	1.08 ± 0.061	1.11 ± 0.060	0.074	-0.126	-0.063	
Sepsis	cynipsea	A: Vienna	Lab	May 09	102	84	14.40 ± 0.389		14.28 ± 0.616	0.97 ± 0.033	1.02 ± 0.030	0.371	0.075	-0.155	
		CH: Zürich	Field	July 08	71	47	10.40 ± 0.460		10.38 ± 0.514	1.02 ± 0.037	1.09 ± 0.025	0.009	-0.378	-0.100	
		CH: Zürich	Lab	July 08	70	75	12.26 ± 0.358		12.31 ± 0.401	1.02 ± 0.022	1.09 ± 0.028	-0.075	-0.154	-0.136	
		I: Umbria	Lab	Oct 09	57	53	14.95 ± 0.438		14.48 ± 0.710	0.99 ± 0.041	1.06 ± 0.051	-0.266	-0.670	-0.241	
		S: Uppsala	Field	Sep 08	67	54	27.56 ± 0.647		27.43 ± 0.546	1.01 ± 0.029	1.08 ± 0.017	-0.069	-0.061	0.007	
		S: Uppsala	Lab	Sep 08	73	63	12.74 ± 0.373		12.75 ± 0.350	0.99 ± 0.024	1.07 ± 0.020	0.414	0.177	-0.223	
		S: Nyköping	Lab	Oct 09	76	73	13.68 ± 0.622		13.65 ± 0.521	0.99 ± 0.019	1.07 ± 0.023	-0.114	0.346	0.260	
Sepsis	dis similis	Brunei	Lab	Nov 09	52	53	17.76	± 0.586	17.54 ± 0.445	0.74 ± 0.022	0.75 ± 0.013	0.278	-0.039	-0.136	
Sepsis	duplicata	CH: Zürich	Lab	Oct 09	60	69	21.02	± 0.942	20.61 ± 0.735	0.74 ± 0.015	0.83 ± 0.020	0.109	0.184	-0.013	
Sepsis	flavimana	CH: Zürich	Lab	May 09	50	70	21.60	± 0.515	22.03 ± 0.679	0.91 ± 0.039	0.99 ± 0.032	0.485	0.119	-0.174	
Sepsis	fulgens	A: Vienna	Lab	May 09	75	72	15.50 ± 0.470		15.77 ± 0.538	0.99 ± 0.027	1.03 ± 0.030	0.254	-0.073	-0.219	
		E: Sierra Nevada	Field	Sep 08	156	151	23.67 ± 1.240		23.79 ± 1.431	0.97 ± 0.022	1.02 ± 0.023	0.038	-0.075	-0.070	
		E: Sierra Nevada	Lab	Sep 08	158	160	17.34 ± 0.610		17.41 ± 0.643	0.94 ± 0.019	0.99 ± 0.025	0.759	-0.130	-0.696	
		Est: Tartu	Field	May 09	160	196	18.10 ± 1.121		18.62 ± 1.167	0.97 ± 0.044	1.02 ± 0.036	-0.018	-0.108	0.001	
		Est: Tartu	Lab	May 09	184	170	16.08 ± 1.034		16.17 ± 1.056	0.97 ± 0.021	1.02 ± 0.028	0.425	-0.169	-0.426	
		I: Calabria	Lab	Oct 09	136	127	17.59 ± 0.524		17.93 ± 0.693	0.99 ± 0.018	1.05 ± 0.021	0.588	-0.214	-0.528	
Sepsis	lateralis	IND: Sulawesi	Lab	May 09	81	86	16.87	± 0.716	16.19 ± 0.854	1.08 ± 0.050	1.05 ± 0.035	-0.156	0.017	0.005	
Sepsis	monostigma	CHN: Zhongmu	Lab	May 09	99	95	14.81	± 0.530	14.81 ± 0.664	1.03 ± 0.030	1.10 ± 0.026	0.343	-0.438	-0.459	
Sepsis	neocynipsea	CH: Zürich	Lab	July 08	66	64	17.14 ± 0.409		16.91 ± 0.422	1.12 ± 0.020	1.17 ± 0.028	0.173	0.008	-0.089	
		I: Umbria	Lab	Oct 09	64	55	16.90 ± 0.590		16.98 ± 0.529	1.09 ± 0.040	1.12 ± 0.034	0.008	-0.048	-0.040	
		AZ: Tucson	Lab	May 09	100	113	14.78 ± 0.607		13.95 ± 0.454	1.15 ± 0.053	1.11 ± 0.038	0.495	-0.245	-0.477	
		IL: Chicago	Lab	May 09	69	93	14.64 ± 0.462		14.04 ± 0.566	1.12 ± 0.041	1.08 ± 0.035	0.259	-0.066	-0.230	
Sepsis	orthocnemis	A: Vienna	Lab	May 09	78	161	18.03 ± 0.313		18.04 ± 0.208	0.93 ± 0.017	0.99 ± 0.018	0.150	0.549	0.371	
		CH: Zürich	Lab	July 08	92	115	18.38 ± 0.261		18.53 ± 0.550	0.95 ± 0.014	0.99 ± 0.016	0.474	-0.196	-0.443	
Sepsis	punctum	CH: Zürich	Field	May 09	52	68	21.08 ± 0.925		19.31 ± 0.363	1.23 ± 0.038	1.15 ± 0.030	-0.124	-0.166	-0.206	
		CH: Zürich	Lab	May 09	111	93	16.56 ± 0.617		15.22 ± 0.417	1.30 ± 0.031	1.22 ± 0.045	0.247	-0.209	-0.403	
		D: Berlin	Field	Sep 08	173	159	26.11 ± 2.056		23.34 ± 1.577	1.30 ± 0.033	1.20 ± 0.030	0.057	-0.471	-0.118	
		D: Berlin	Lab	Sep 08	156	201	16.09 ± 0.505		14.91 ± 0.614	1.29 ± 0.035	1.21 ± 0.025	0.415	-0.492	-0.517	
		GA: Athens	Lab	May 09	130	132	14.24 ± 0.401		13.83 ± 0.509	1.05 ± 0.026	1.08 ± 0.024	0.299	-0.058	-0.285	
		NY: New York	Lab	May 09	101	95	13.81 ± 0.639		13.65 ± 0.846	1.04 ± 0.031	1.07 ± 0.041	0.511	-0.252	-0.269	
Sepsis	secunda	NC: Raleigh	Lab	May 09	103	113	22.45	± 0.606	22.71 ± 1.018	0.79 ± 0.032	0.86 ± 0.040	0.517	-0.247	-0.492	
Sepsis	thoracica	A: Vienna	Lab	May 09	83	76	12.04 ± 0.168		11.28 ± 0.380	1.11 ± 0.036	1.03 ± 0.022	0.497	-0.336	-0.520	
		E: Sierra Nevada	Field	Sep 08	60	57	21.57 ± 1.836		18.03 ± 1.589	1.16 ± 0.027	1.07 ± 0.015	-0.140	-0.277	0.078	
		E: Sierra Nevada	Lab	Sep 08	58	51	12.86 ± 0.431		11.91 ± 0.702	1.13 ± 0.029	1.00 ± 0.066	0.249	-0.202	-0.328	
		I: Calabria	Field	July 08	147	134	10.91 ± 1.589		10.14 ± 1.172	1.17 ± 0.052	1.06 ± 0.037	-0.002	-0.228	-0.051	
		I: Calabria	Lab	July 08	135	140	12.63 ± 0.64		11.52 ± 0.695	1.16 ± 0.058	1.05 ± 0.053	0.235	-0.079	-0.172	
		I: Umbria	Lab	Oct 09	65	63	14.43 ± 0.342		13.44 ± 0.345	1.13 ± 0.043	1.06 ± 0.023	0.524	-0.287	-0.473	
Sepsis	violacea	A: Vienna	Lab	Oct 09	73	72	21.30 ± 1.106		21.32 ± 0.922	1.02 ± 0.028	1.09 ± 0.028	0.552	-0.226	-0.509	
		Est: Tartu	Lab	Oct 09	66	71	20.72 ± 1.671		20.45 ± 1.028	1.04 ± 0.034	1.10 ± 0.031	0.481	-0.387	-0.454	
Themira	minor	CA: Monterey	lab	Aug 11	109	101	11.38 ± 0.43		11.28 ± 0.436	0.89 ± 0.037	0.92 ± 0.037	-0.179	-0.097	0.040	
													0.221	-0.144	-0.223 Mean
													0.074	0.064	0.066 95%CI

**Table 3:** Correlation coefficient between the square-root-transformed number of eggs laid by populations of females into dishes with 6 concentrations of ivermectin plus two controls and log<sub>10</sub> (ivermectin concentration) for each oviposition choice experiment using a total of 21 populations of 10 sepsid species (N = number of population cage replicates). A negative correlation indicates avoidance of higher ivermectin concentration, a positive correlation preference thereof. Significant correlations are in bold.

<b>Species</b>	<b>population</b>	<b>r</b>	<b>N</b>
<i>Saltella sphondylii</i>	CH	<b>0.543</b>	4
<i>Sepsis cynipsea</i>	A	0.049	5
	CH	0.112	8
	S	0.163	9
<i>Sepsis duplicata</i>	CH	-0.039	6
<i>Sepsis flavimana</i>	CH	0.064	6
<i>Sepsis fulgens</i>	E	<b>0.375</b>	7
	EST	0.230	7
	I	-0.004	5
<i>Sepsis neocynipsea</i>	I	0.030	5
	IL	0.125	5
<i>Sepsis orthocnemis</i>	A	-0.115	5
	CH	0.127	4
<i>Sepsis punctum</i>	A	-0.170	4
	CH	0.275	5
	D	-0.005	14
	GA	-0.082	5
<i>Sepsis thoracica</i>	E	0.071	4
	I	0.177	10
<i>Sepsis violacea</i>	A	0.119	5
	EST	-0.176	4
<b>Mean</b>		<b>0.089</b>	

Figure 1

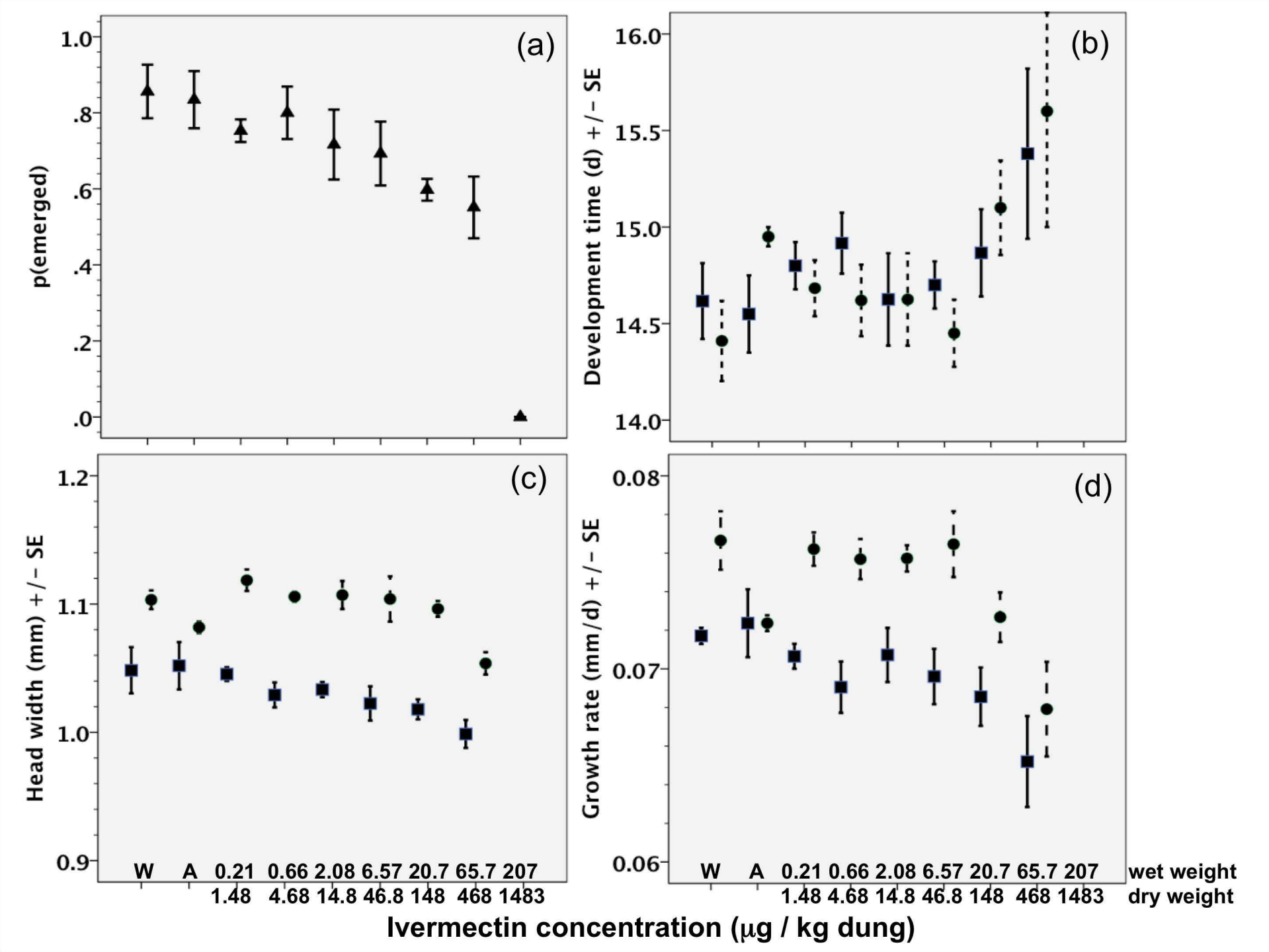




Figure 2

